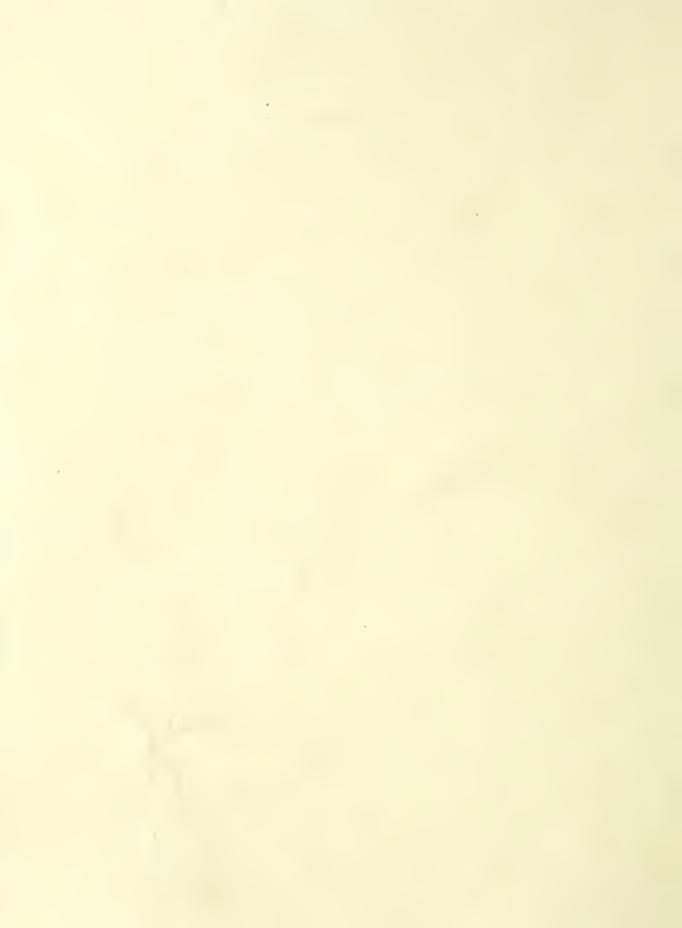
Historic, archived document

Do not assume content reflects current scientific knowledge, policies, or practices.



321.9 331

family CONSUMER and Food Economics Research Division Agricultural Research Service House Tevice UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

3	Sources of Expenditure DataJean L. Pennock								
5	Some New USDA Publications	Some New USDA Publications							
6	Figuring the Cost of Doing Laundry at HomeLucile F. Mork								
8	Dr. Robert L. Rizek Becomes Director of CFE								
8	Ready-to-Eat Breakfast Cereals in U.S. Diets	Betty Peterkin							
10	Breakfast Patterns of Boys in the North Central Eleanor Pao	Region							
11	Mailing of Unordered Merchandise is Banned								
12	Food Prices Before and After Distribution of Welfare ChecksEileen F. Taylor								
13	Better Diets Possible by Shifting Food Expenditure Pattern Constance Ward								
13	Distribution of the Food Dollar by Families in Fo and in the Low-Cost Food PlanJudy Chassy	our Regions							
16	Child-Rearing Costs at Two Levels of Living, byJean L. Pennock	•							
18	Characteristics of American Youth	U. S. DEPT. OF AGRICULTURE MATIONAL AGRICULTURAL LIBRARY RECEIVED							
19	Variations in Income over the Family Life Cycle								
20	Social Security Income of Older Women	SEP 12 1971							
23	Wives in the Labor Force	PROCUREMENT SECTION CURRENT SERIAL RECORDS							
25	Cost of Food at Home								
26	Consumer Prices								
27	Index of Articles in 1970 Issues								

ARS 62-5 December 1970 <u>Family Economics Review</u> is a quarterly report on research of the Consumer and Food Economics Research Division and on information from other sources relating to economic aspects of family living. It is prepared primarily for home economics agents and home economics specialists of the Cooperative Extension Service.

Consumer and Food Economics Research Division
U.S. Department of Agriculture
Federal Center Building No. 1
Hyattsville, Maryland 20782

SOURCES OF EXPENDITURE DATA

Readers of <u>Family Economics Review</u> (FER) have told us they would like current information on expenditure patterns of families. FER carries information from nation-wide expenditure surveys as it becomes available. These surveys are made infrequently, however. The last such survey was the 1960-61 Survey of Consumer Expenditures, conducted cooperatively by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor and the U.S. Department of Agriculture. The next is now planned for 1972-73.

The U.S. Department of Commerce produces annual estimates of expenditure data in its Personal Consumption Expenditures Series $\frac{1}{2}$, which is part of its U.S. National Income and Product Accounts. FER does not carry the Commerce estimates because the two sets of data cannot be used interchangeably and the BLS-USDA data are more useful to home economists and workers in allied professions. A comparison of the two sets of data and a brief discussion of the differences between them, however, may interest FER readers. $\frac{2}{2}$

The table below carries data from the two sources for the year 1961 in the form of per capita estimates to illustrate the magnitude of the differences between them. The data for the 2 years are also shown as a percentage distribution. The most recent Commerce data are also included. The 1961 BLS-USDA estimates are about 9 percent less in total than the Commerce estimates. The categories in the two sets of data differ, sometimes proportionately more than this, sometimes less, with the result that the percentage distribution of expenditures among categories is not the same in the two.

FER gives preference to the BLS-USDA data because:

- extimates for component population groups as well as national totals are available in the BLS-USDA data only. The BLS-USDA data are published for the urban, rural nonfarm, and farm populations, the four principal Census regions, and within these for 10 socio-economic characteristics including income level, family type and size, and race. Because data are obtained from the consuming units, the possibilities for regrouping are limited only by the information asked of the respondents. The Commerce data are obtained for the most part from the channels of distribution rather than from consumers of the goods and services involved and the consumer cannot be identified.
- . The content of the BLS-USDA data is consumer oriented. It describes the use of family income. The Commerce data include, in addition to the expenditures of consumer units, those of nonprofit institutions and some expenses for the Armed forces.

^{1/} Published in the July issue of its periodical, <u>Survey of Current Business</u>, as table 2.5 of "U.S. National Income and Product Accounts."

^{2/} A detailed comparison of the coverage and content of the two sets of data is included in BLS Bulletin No. 1684, Consumer Expenditures and Income: Survey Guidelines (in press).

Category of	Fami expendi	•	Pers		onsumpti litures	onsumption itures	
consumption	196	j1	196)l	1969		
	Dollars	Pct.	Dollars	Pct.	Dollars	Pct.	
Total	1,661	100.0	1,824	100.0	2,842	100.0	
Food, alcohol, and tobacco Shelter Household operation, utilities,	437 206	26.3 12.4		26.9 14.5		22.8	
housefurnishings and equipment Clothing and clothing services - Personal care Medical care Education and reading Automobile transportation Other transportation Gifts, religious and welfare	250 163 46 108 76 17 214 24	15.1 9.8 2.7 6.5 4.6 1.0 12.9	263 184 32 111 106 22 208 30	14.4 10.1 1.7 6.1 5.8 1.2 11.4	292 48 209 179 48 359	14.1 10.3 1.7 7.4 6.3 1.7 12.6 1.6	
activities	87 35	5.2 2.1	27 87	1.5 4.8		1.4 5.5	

^{1/} Developed from Table 1B, Consumer Expenditures and Income, Total United States, Urban and Rural, 1960-61; BLS Rpt. No. 237-93.

The BLS-USDA data report outlays in the form they are made by families. The Commerce data, on the other hand, are concerned with transactions within the total economy and some of the concepts pertinent to the total economy do not describe the family's use of its income. Differences in the treatment of housing expenditures may serve to illustrate differences throughout the two data systems. In the BLS-USDA data families report their actual outlays for housing--renters reporting rent, owners reporting taxes, interest on mortgages, and insurance, and both reporting their expenditures for repairs. Families receiving rent as pay estimate its value and this amount is treated both as an expenditure and as an item of income. The comparable statistic in Commerce data is an estimate of the rental value of all housing. Because rental value is generally set to include a return on investment as well as to cover expenses, rental value for owner-occupied housing is generally greater than the taxes, mortgage interest, insurance, and repairs. The BLS-USDA data also distinguish between expenditures made by families for their own consumption and the goods and services they buy as gifts or

^{2/} Developed from Table 2.5, The National Income and Product Accounts of the United States, 1929-1965; A Supplement to the Survey of Current Business, and from the Survey of Current Business, July 1970. U.S. Dept. of Commerce.

for the support of persons outside the economic family. These latter expenditures appear in the data under the category gifts and contributions, not in the category describing the goods or services purchased. In the Commerce data all expenditures are classified by the nature of the goods and services purchased.

Although both types of data are subject to error in collection and compilation, it is probable that the BLS-USDA data contain more total error and certain that they contain more systematic error. Both income and expenditures tend to be understated, the former more than the latter. Respondents in surveys also sometimes shade their reporting toward what they believe to be the socially acceptable response. Expenditures on alcoholic beverages, for example, are scriously understated. It is believed, however, that the BLS-USDA data correctly represent the relative positions of population groups.

Changes in the Commerce data between 1960-61 and 1969 indicate that the BLS-USDA data no longer represent the level of spending or the spending patterns of all families or of groups of families that draw from all or most income levels. In this period per eapita expenditures in the Commerce series rose 56 percent. The percentage distribution of expenditures also changed, the greatest shift being a decrease of 4.1 percentage points in food, alcoholic beverages, and tobacco. Many of the changes in the distribution stem from increases in income level. Probably a BLS-USDA survey made now would show comparable changes in level and distribution of expenditures.

Although the 1960-61 data do not adequately reflect current spending at the all-families level, they probably do provide a usable approximation of spending patterns of families at each income level. Given the same amount of income then and now, families eould be expected to use it in much the same way then and now.

--Jean L. Pennoek

SOME NEW USDA PUBLICATIONS

Single copies of the following are available free from the Office of Information, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. 20250:

- FAMILY FARE: A GUIDE TO GOOD NUTRITION. HG No. 1. Revised.
- . EQUIPMENT FOR COOLING YOUR HOME. G 100.
- . MINIGARDENS FOR VEGETABLES. G 163.
- U.S. POPULATION MOBILITY AND DISTRIBUTION: CHARTS ON RECENT TRENDS, ERS-436.

The following are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402:

- DIETARY LEVELS OF HOUSEHOLDS IN THE SOUTH, SPRING 1965. HFCS Report No. 9. \$1.00.
- CONTOURS OF CHANGE. The 1970 Yearbook of Agriculture. \$3.50.
- . HANDBOOK OF AGRICULTURAL CHARTS 1970. AH No. 397. 65 eents.

FIGURING THE COST OF DOING LAUNDRY AT HOME

The October 1964 issue of <u>Family Economics Review</u> had an article showing cost per load of laundry done at home in the Washington, D.C., area. In response to requests the table on page 7 gives the current costs. The method used in computing these costs is described below.

Cost per load of laundry done at home depends on the amount invested in appliances and the number of times the appliances are used, the quantities of fuel and water used and the rates paid for these utilities, and the cost of supplies used. The use made of laundry equipment and the costs involved vary widely from family to family. For the homemaker who wants to figure the cost per load of laundry for her family, the following procedures are suggested:

Each load of laundry done must carry its share of the initial cost of the appliances. If the appliances were bought on credit, the initial cost is the cash price plus the amount added for the use of credit. To determine the share to be assigned per load, estimate the total number of loads each appliance will handle in the time you own it. The total number of loads is the average number of loads you do per week times the number of weeks you use the appliance per year, times the number of years you expect the appliance to last. Studies by the Consumer and Food Economics Research Division show that the average life of a washer bought new is about 10 years and an electric dryer bought new about 14 years.

Next, divide the estimated total number of loads you expect to do in the washer into the initial cost of the appliance. Do the same for the dryer.

You will also want to include an amount to cover cost of repairs. Five percent of the cost of appliances divided over the number of loads per year provides for average maintenance costs. You may want to use a larger or smaller percentage.

If CFE estimates of average life expectancy for a washer and dryer and the 5 percent rate for repairs are satisfactory for your situation and you use your appliances 52 weeks per year, the factors given below may be used to get the cost per load for the appliance itself and its maintenance. Multiply the cost of each appliance by the factor shown under the number of loads you average per week as follows:

			Number of lo	ads per weel	ζ.	
Appliance	3	4	5	6	8	10
Washer	0.000962	0.000721	0.000577	0.000481	0.000361	0.000288
Dryer	.000778	.000584	.000467	. 000389	.000292	.000234

To figure the cost of operating the appliances you need to know the amount of fuel required, the amount of water the washer uses and gas or electricity required to heat it, and the unit cost for fuel and water.

The amount of electricity needed to run the motors in the washer and dryer depends on their size. The motor size is usually given by the manufacturer in terms of horsepower on the nameplate and in the instructions. Determine the rate at which the

motor uses kilowatt-hours—the unit in which you pay for electricity—by multiplying the number of horsepower by 0.746 (1 horsepower equals 746 watts or 0.746 kilowatt-hours). Then, determine the amount of electricity used per load by multiplying the rate of use by the length of time (hours or fraction of an hour) the motor runs per load.

The requirements of the heating element of the dryer are usually stated separately in the information furnished by the manufacturer.

The instruction manual for the washer should give the quantity of water used per load. About two-thirds of the total amount is hot water. The amount of fuel needed to heat the water depends on the temperature of the water as delivered to the tank and the temperature to which it is heated. To heat 23 gallons of water, about the average amount of hot water used per load in an automatic washer, from 40 degrees to 140 degrees has been estimated to require about one-fourth therm of gas. If your cost for water and gas is near average, it will be between 3 and 5 cents per load.

The cost of detergent, disinfectant, softener, and bleach per load can be computed from the quantity and price per unit of purchase and the amount used.

Estimated cost per load of laundry done at home in the Washington, D.C., area

Item of expense	N	umber of	loads don	e at home	per week	
Toem of expense	3	4	5	6	8	10
Equipment (automatic	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents
washer and dryer) Operation Supplies	0.46 .17 .10	0.35 .17 .10	0.28 .17 .10	0.23 .17 .10	0.17 .17 .10	0.14 .17 .10
Total	•73	.62	• 55	.50	• 44	.41

For the estimates of cost in the table above, an automatic washing machine costing \$299 and an electric dryer costing \$223 on a 24-month installment plan were assumed. The amount of electricity required by the appliances was estimated at 0.2 kilowatt-hours for the washer and 4.4 kilowatt-hours for the dryer. The rate used for electricity was \$2.50 per 100 kilowatt-hours. Thirty-five gallons of water per load at \$0.64 per 1,000 gallons and about one-fourth therm of gas to heat the water at the rate of \$13.20 per 100 therms were also used in making the estimates of cost.

The cost of a detergent was based on a 3 pound 1 ounce box costing 89 cents and containing approximately 15 cups. Therefore, 1 cup cost about 6 cents. A chlorine disinfectant bought in a 1 gallon container costs about 4 cents per cup.

If you want to compare the cost per load of laundry done at home and in a self-service laundry, the cost for self-service laundry is easily figured by adding local fees for washing and drying and cost of supplies.

DR. ROBERT L. RIZEK BECOMES DIRECTOR OF CFE

Dr. Rizek has succeeded Dr. Faith Clark as Director of the Consumer and Food Economics Research Division. He comes to CFE from the Economic and Statistical Analysis Division, Economic Research Service of USDA. Before coming to Washington in 1964, he served as Regional Coordinator for ERS for 4 years at Iowa State University. He holds a Ph.D. degree from North Carolina State University and B.S. and M.S. degrees from Kansas State University.

READY-TO-EAT BREAKFAST CEREALS IN U.S. DIETS

Both interest and confusion about the nutritional contribution of ready-to-eat breakfast cereals have resulted from the testimony before the Consumer Subcommittee of the U.S. Senate Commerce Committee last summer. Regardless of the intent of the testimony, the message that reached many consumers was that they would be better off eating something--indeed. almost anything--instead of ready-to-eat breakfast cereals. The purpose of this article is to document, from food consumption survey data, the contribution that ready-to-eat cereals make to diets in our country.

Who eats breakfast cereals? Three-fourths of the Nation's families use some ready-to-eat cereals sometime during the week, according to the USDA's most recent survey. Children were the biggest users of ready-to-eat cereals. They are at least twice as much per person as their parents. Boys ate more than girls and men ate more than women of the same age. The average amounts of ready-to-eat cereals eaten per person in a week in urban households in the United States were estimated as follows:

Age of person	Ounces per p	erson per week
	Male	Female
1 - 2 years	2.3	2.2
3 - 5 years	3.1	2.6
6 - 8 years	4.1	3.2
9 - 11 years	3.3	2.6
12 - 14 years	3.6	2.3
15 - 19 years	2.0	1.5
20 - 54 years	1.3	0.9
55 years and over	2.0	1.5

Ready-to-eat cereals gained in popularity during the 10 years between the two most recent surveys. The amount families used increased by one-third in that period. This increase may be accounted for by factors such as the wider assortment of flavorful cereals available, advertising, and increased demand for convenience in foods, to name a few.

^{1/} Food Consumption of Households in the United States, Spring 1965, HFCS Report No. 1, and unpublished data.

Are breakfast cereals nutritious? The chief nutritional contributions of ready-to-eat cereals are in iron and two B-vitamins, thiamin and niacin. The contribution in any one of these nutrients made by one cereal may be five or more times as much as by an equal amount of another cereal. The consumer who wants a breakfast cereal especially rich in a particular nutrient—iron, for example—may choose on the basis of nutrient information on the box.

An ounce of the assortment of ready-to-eat cereals selected by U.S. survey families provided the 6-to-8-year-old child with 20 percent of his Recommended Dietary Allowance $\frac{2}{}$ for thiamin, 15 percent of his allowance for iron, and a smaller share of the RDA for several other nutrients. With one-half cup (4 fluid ounces) of milk, an ounce of cereal (about one cup) furnished 20 to 25 percent of this child's allowance for protein, calcium, thiamin, and riboflavin and 15 percent of the allowance for iron. The proportions of the RDA's for the child, 6 to 8 years, and the man, 22 to 35 years of age, furnished by an ounce of cereal with and without milk are shown below:

	Cerea	al alone	Cereal with milk				
	Child,	Man,	Child,	Man,			
	6-8 years	22-35 years	6-8 years	22-35 years			
	Pct.	Pct.	Pet.	Pct.			
Food energy (calories)	5	4	9	7			
Protein	7	4	20	11			
Calcium	3	3	19	21			
Iron	15	15	15	15			
Thiamin	20	14	24	17			
Riboflavin	7	4	25	16			

Are breakfast cereals expensive? One way that the economy of a food as sources of nutrients can be measured is to compare the proportion of the total food money spent for that food with the proportion of the total nutrients in the diet that are contributed by that food. By this measure ready-to-eat breakfast cereals are economical sources of thiamin, iron, and niacin:

They take---1.3 percent of the food money of U.S. families and provide --7.0 percent of the thiamin,

- --4.1 percent of the iron,
- --3.4 percent of the niacin,
- --1.8 percent of the riboflavin, and
- --1.8 percent of the food energy in their diets.

--Betty Peterkin

^{2/} The Recommended Dietary Allowances (1968) are daily calorie and nutrient intakes judged to be adequate for the maintenance of good nutrition in essentially all healthy persons in the United States by the National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council.

BREAKFAST PATTERNS OF BOYS IN THE NORTH CENTRAL REGION

Many variations in breakfast patterns were found among teenage boys from urban families surveyed in the spring of 1965. However, almost all--95 percent--ate breakfast on the one day for which their intake was recorded. The menu most frequently chosen by these boys was breakfast cereal and milk.

Breakfast patterns. -- Breakfast was defined in this study as the main meal eaten between 3 and 11 a.m. The patterns provide a broad outline of the foods eaten for breakfast but do not include accompanying fats, sweeteners, whiteners, sauces, and related items.

Forty-three percent of the boys had a breakfast based on cereal and milk. More than half of this group added a fruit, a bread, or both to the cereal and milk pattern. Nine times out of ten breakfast cereal was a ready-to-eat variety.

High-protein breakfasts -- those including meat, eggs, cheese, peanut butter, or baked beans, singly or in combination--were selected by almost one-third of the boys. Usually milk and a bread or other bakery product were also included and often a breakfast cereal either with or without fruit. Three-fourths of the boys who chose meat for breakfast chose bacon. More likely than not, eggs -- usually fried -- accompanied the meat. Peanut butter was the high-protein item in about one-tenth of these breakfasts.

About 1 out of every 6 breakfasts was basically a bread (including pancakes and french toast) with milk or fruit or both.

Basic breakfast patterns	Percent of boys
Breakfast cereal and milk	17
Breakfast cereal, milk, bread or other baked product	11
Breakfast cereal, milk, fruit, with or without	
bread or baked product	15
High-protein item(s) and bread or other baked product -	5
High-protein item(s), milk, and bread or other	
baked product	10
High-protein item(s), milk, cereal, bread or other	
baked product	6
High-protein item(s), milk, fruit, with or without	
bread or other baked product	8
High-protein item(s), milk, cereal, fruit, with or	
without bread or other baked product	2
Bread or other baked product. with milk and/or fruit	16
One food or beverage	5
No food or beverage	5

Milk was consumed by slightly more than 80 percent of the boys either on cereal or as a beverage or both. Only 6 percent of these teenage boys drank coffee for breakfast. Orange juice made up more than half and products containing synthetic vitamin C a fifth of the fruit and fruit substitutes consumed. However, only one-third of the breakfasts included a fruit or fruit substitute at breakfast. Bread was eaten for breakfast by more than one-half of the boys and three-fifths of them used butter or margarine on it.

Milk, cereals, eggs, and fruit were consumed considerably more often at breakfast than at other meals.

More than half of the week-day breakfasts were eaten between 7 and 8 a.m. and about half that many between 8 and 9 a.m. Weekend breakfasts were eaten twice as often between 9 and 10 a.m. as at any other hour. Approximately 30 percent of the teenagers ate 3 times per day (including meals and snacks), 35 percent ate 4 times, 22 percent ate 5 times, and 8 percent ate 6 times or more. The remaining 5 percent ate twice on the day reported.

Only 6 percent of the boys had a snack before 11 a.m.; of these snacks, as many were eaten before breakfast as after. Foods eaten apart from the main meals were snacks. Milk, bread, doughnuts, sweet rolls, and candy were the snack items reported. A few boys had lunch early—shortly before 11 a.m.

Sample. -- The sample used for this study consisted of 121 boys, 12-14 years, from urban households in the North Central region that participated in the spring 1965 nationwide USDA Food Consumption Survey. Approximately 65 percent of the boys came from families with 1964 incomes of \$7,000 or more while just under 10 percent came from families with incomes of \$3,000 or less. Over 40 percent of the boys were members of families consisting of at least 6 persons and an additional 44 percent of the boys came from 4- and 5-member households. About one-third of the homemakers in these households were employed and well over one-half of them had at least completed high school.

Socioeconomic factors. —In this preliminary analysis, family income and family size did not appear to exert much influence on the breakfast patterns. The ready-to-eat cereal and milk breakfast was common in all income groups. But the cooked breakfast cereals, generally oatmeal, tended to be eaten by low-income large families in which the homemaker was over 40 years of age and had no more than a high school education. Homemakers with only an elementary education served fruit for breakfast much less often than homemakers with some college experience.

--Eleanor Pao

MAILING OF UNORDERED MERCHANDISE IS BANNED

The mailing of most unordered merchandise — that is, merchandise mailed without the request or consent of the person receiving it—has been banned by a provision of the new Postal Reorganization Act. Under this new act only two types of unordered merchandise may be mailed: (1) Merchandise clearly and conspicuously marked as free samples, and (2) merchandise from charitable organizations seeking contributions.

The recipient of unordered merchandise may use or discard it without obligation to pay for it. The Postal Reorganization Act makes it illegal for the sender of this merchandise to request payment for it.

The date when this act will become effective has not yet been set. The Federal Trade Commission has announced, however, that it will begin to enforce the ban on unordered merchandise immediately.

FOOD PRICES BEFORE AND AFTER DISTRIBUTION OF WELFARE CHECKS

A 1969 survey of food prices in low-income areas of seven cities revealed no identifiable pattern of price increases in food stores after distribution of welfare checks. Although there were price increases and decreases, the total cost of approximately 3,900 items increased less than 0.1 percent between the first and second week of the survey.

The 2-week survey was conducted by USDA's Economic Research Service in response to allegations that retail foodstore operators in low-income areas increase food prices after the issuance of welfare checks. The Department was concerned because any deliberate price increases to coincide with the issuance of welfare checks would adversely affect its Food Stamp Program.

The findings are based on prices paid for selected items in stores in low-income areas of Washington, D.C., Jackson, Miss., Boston, Mass., Newark, N.J., Detroit, Mich., Cleveland, Ohio, and Oakland, Calif. Specific food items used frequently by low-income families were purchased in each store the week before the issuance of welfare checks; these same items were purchased again on the same day 1 week later immediately after checks were issued. All purchases were made without prior knowledge of store operators.

Of the total number of items purchased, prices were changed on 14 percent between the first and second week of the survey. The net change, however, was slight. Although about half these price changes were increases, the net difference owing to all changes was an increase of 85 cents on a total bill of \$1,600 per week for all purchases made in all sample stores in the low-income areas.

In about one-fourth of all stores visited, the cost of an identical basket of food was the same during both survey weeks. Nearly half the stores had cost differences of 5 cents or less, divided equally between increases and decreases.

Marked differences were recorded among the cities surveyed. For example, 9 out of 10 stores in Detroit and Cleveland changed prices on one or more items but only half the stores in Boston did so. Almost 60 percent of the price changes in Oakland were decreases but in Detroit 70 percent were increases.

Price changes were most likely to occur on items that were not price marked, and prices on fresh products changed more often than those on other items. Supermarkets tended to change prices more often than neighborhood stores. Errors at the checkout counter also accounted for variations in total grocery bills.

Normal fluctuations should be considered in any discussion of price changes. For example, during the Washington, D.C., survey, a seasonal decline in egg prices accounted for the largest share of changes. In other changes, advertised specials 1 week, preceded or followed by regular prices the other week, caused most of the widest fluctuations. Furthermore, food prices in general had been rising. From April to August 1969, the All U.S. Consumer Price Index for Food at Home went up 3.6 percent and was near its highest level in 1969 in four of the five cities surveyed.

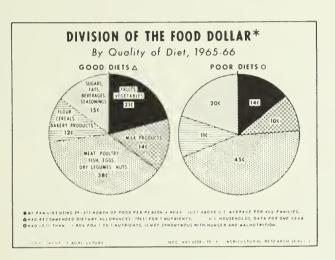
--Eileen F. Taylor

Source: Taylor, Eileen F., Food Prices, Before and After Distribution of Welfare Checks--Low-Income Areas, Seven Cities, 1969. U.S. Dept. Agr. Mktg. Res. Rpt. No. 907, 1970. For sale for 30 cents by Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

BETTER DIETS POSSIBLE BY SHIFTING FOOD EXPENDITURE PATTERN

Data from the 1965-66 Household Food Consumption Survey indicate that families ean have better diets by placing greater emphasis on fruits and vegetables, and milk and milk products. The effect of using more of these two food groups is illustrated in the division of the food dollar by two groups of families whose diets differed in quality although both had average consumption valued at \$9 to \$12 per person per week (see chart).

The diets rated "good" met the 1963 Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDA's) of the Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council for each of the seven nutrients—protein, calcium, iron, vitamin A value, thiamin, riboflavin, and ascorbic acid. Households having good diets allocated, on the average, 11 cents more of their food dollar to the two food groups—fruits and vegetables, milk and milk products—than did households with poor diets. They allocated about the same proportion as households with poor diets to the flour, cereal, and bakery products group. However, households with good



diets used 7 cents less of their food dollar for meat, poultry, fish, eggs, dry legumes, and nuts than did households with poor diets but still met the RDA's for all nutrients.

The diets rated "poor" met less than two-thirds of the RDA's for one or more nutrients. Low nutrient levels occurred most frequently for calcium, vitamin A value, and ascorbic acid and were related to the smaller share of the food dollar going for fruits and vegetables, and milk and milk products.

--Constance Ward

DISTRIBUTION OF THE FOOD DOLLAR BY FAMILIES IN FOUR REGIONS AND IN THE LOW-COST FOOD PLAN

How do families spending similar amounts for food divide their food money among food groups? How does this compare with the way we estimate a similar amount of money would be divided if used to buy foods as suggested in the USDA low-cost food plan that provides a nutritionally adequate diet? Do families spending similar amounts in different regions divide their food money in the same way? How do they divide the money they spend for meat, poultry, and fish—the group that accounts for the largest part of their food money?

To answer these questions, we have studied the division of food money by urban families using food at home worth \$5-\$7 per person in a week in the United States and in

Table 1.--Distribution of food dollar in the USDA low-cost food plan and by urban families spending at the general level of the low-cost plan, United States and four regions, 1965-66

[\$5-\$7	per	person	in	a	week]	
----------	-----	--------	----	---	-------	--

	Low-cost	Money value of food used							
Food group	food plan	U.S.	North- east	North Central	South	West			
	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.			
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100			
Milk, cheese, ice cream Meat, poultry, fish Eggs Dry beans, peas, nuts Flour, cereals, baked goods - Vegetables and fruits Fats and oils Sugars and sweets Accessories 1/	18 24 4 2 16 24 3 2	14 33 4 2 14 19 4 3	16 34 3 2 15 18 3	14 34 3 2 14 18 4 3	13 34 4 2 14 18 4 4	16 31 3 2 14 21 3 3			

^{1/} Coffee, tea, soft drinks, seasonings.

four regions--Northeast, North Central, South, West--in $1965-66.\frac{1}{2}$ This level of spending coincides generally with the cost of the USDA low-cost food plan at that time. Families spending at this level in the four regions had similar incomes and were about the same size and composition, on the average.

These regional groups of families obtained similarly small proportions -- about 4 percent--of the money value of all food at home without direct expense (home-produced, gifts, pay, or federally donated). Therefore, in this report, the terms "spending," "food money," and "food dollar" denote the money value of all food at home used by the families during the survey week.

Distribution of the food dollar: U.S. families and the low-cost plan. -- Families used about the same proportions of their food money as estimated in the low-cost plan for all but three of the food groups listed in table 1. They used a larger portion of their food money for meat, poultry, and fish (33 percent) than in the low-cost plan (24 percent). They allotted less to milk, cheese, and ice cream and to vegetables and fruits than in the plan.

The nutrients for which these two food groups are important sources -- calcium, vitamin A value, and ascorbic acid--were those that most frequently occurred at levels below Recommended Dietary Allowances in family diets. $\frac{2}{}$

^{1/} Unpublished data of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, "Household Food Consumption Survey," 1965-66.

^{2/} Established by the National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council.

<u>Distribution of the food dollar: Families in four regions.</u>—Except for three food groups, there was little difference in the way families in the four regions divided their food dollar (table 1). In the Northeast and West, milk and milk products took more of the food dollar than in the other two regions. In the West, families used more of the food dollar for fruits and vegetables and less for meat, poultry, and fish than elsewhere.

Distribution of the meat, poultry, and fish dollar: Families in four regions.—Families in all the regions except the West used about one-third of their food money for meat, poultry, and fish (table 2). The families in the West used a little less. The way families in the four regions divided their meat, poultry, and fish (MPF) dollar indicated regional preferences for certain kinds of meat.

Table 2.--Distribution of meat, poultry, and fish dollar by urban families, United States and four regions, 1965-66

[Money value of all food, \$5-\$7 per person in a week]

Item	United States	North- east	North Central	South	West
	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Beef Steaks Roasts Ground Pork Fresh and frozen Bacon and salt pork Other cured and smoked Lunch meats Other meats 1/	80 16 10 10 24 11 7 6 11 4	77 38 15 10 10 22 10 4 8 11 6	83 44 15 12 12 24 11 6 6 13 3	77 36 15 8 9 27 12 9 6 11 3	81 43 19 10 10 21 10 6 4 11 6
POULTRY	13	15	11	14	12
FISH, SHELLFISH	7	8	6	<u>9</u>	7

^{1/} Veal, lamb, mutton, goat, variety meats, and game. Note: Detail omits items consumed in amounts of less than 2 ounces per person in a week.

Families in the North Central region and the West indicated a preference for meat as opposed to poultry and fish by spending a larger part of their MPF dollar for meat than those in the Northeast and South. Families in the North Central region favored beef roasts, ground beef, and lunch meat slightly. In the South, pork (especially bacon and salt pork) claimed more of the MPF dollar than elsewhere. Western families used more of their MPF money for steaks than those in the other regions.

The cost of raising a child varies with level of living and family size as well as with the place of residence. Estimates of costs at two levels of living for an urban and rural child in families with 2, 3, 4, and 5 children in the North Central region and the South are shown in the table. These costs cover the first 18 years of the child's life.

The levels described are those of families whose spending for food equals the cost of the USDA's low-cost and moderate-cost food plans. Food expenditures are used as a measuring device because food is one of the few categories of consumption for which scientific standards of adequacy exist and the food plans provide a technique for relating the consumption of families differing in size and composition. It is assumed that level of consumption in the categories other than food relates directly to level of food consumption. Differences in consumption in the nonfood categories may occur because of the varied circumstances under which families live, but if food consumption is the same we have assumed that the nonfood categories provide equal levels of satisfaction. 1

Effect of Level of Living

The effect of level of living on cost levels can be seen in a comparison of 18-year expenditures at low- and moderate-cost levels for a farm child in a 3-child family in the North Central region. In 1969 prices, these expenditures total about \$20,750 at the low-cost level and about \$30,500-47 percent more-at the moderate-cost level. As is typical of spending patterns at two levels of living, relative differences in spending for food at the low- and moderate-cost levels-22 percent-are less than differences in other categories. Because housing is the largest category, the 56 percent difference in housing expenditures is important in setting the relative positions of total expenditures at the two levels. Greater differences occur in education (185 percent) and the all-other category which includes recreation (77 percent), but these shifts are of lesser importance in determining the overall difference because these categories are not large.

Expenditures for a comparable farm child in the South are larger in almost all categories than in the North Central region. The differences between levels, however, are of the same general order of magnitude in all categories. Consequently, total expenditures at the two levels differ by about the same percentage as in the North Central region. The 18-year costs for a farm child in a 3-child family in the South total about \$22,700 at the low- and \$33,250 at the moderate-cost level.

Low- and moderate-cost levels for the child in a 3-child family are closest in the urban North Central region and differ most in the urban South. In the urban North Central region total 18-year costs are \$23,200 and \$31,800 respectively, a spread of 37 percent. In the urban South total costs are \$21,700 and \$34,200 respectively, a spread of 57 percent. No one category is principally responsible for the difference in the spread between the two levels. In all categories the spread was substantially greater in the South than in the other region.

^{1/} More detail on methodology, including source of the data, the method of estimating consumption, and the content of the categories, is given in the paper "Cost of Raising a Child," presented by the author at the Annual Outlook Conference, February 18, 1970.

15-year costs of raising a child at 1969 prices: Total costs and distribution among major categories of consumption, North Central and South, farm and urban

Region, urbani-	Tot	al	Food	ì	Cloth-	Hous-	Medical	Educa-	Trans-	All
zation, level, and family size $1/$	Dol.	Pct.	At home	Away	ing	ing	care	tion	porta- tion	other
NORTH CENTRAL FARM			Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.	Pct.
Low-cost			^							
2-child 3-child	23,070	100.0	22.8 24.1	2.1	12.4	30.2 28.1	5.5 5.4	0.6 1.0	16.2 16.5	10.2 10.6
4-child	18,630	100.0	25.9	1.9	12.7	27.4	5.6	1.1	14.9	10.5
5-child Moderate-cost	17,620	100.0	26.5	1.9	12.9	26.5	5.6	1.2	14.6	10.8
2-child 3-child	34,010 30,510	100.0	19.3 20.4	1.4	11.6 11.8	31.1	5.1 5.1	1.9	17.2 16.9	12.5
4-child	27,220	100.0	21.5	1.3	12.3	29.5	5.4	1.9	15.6	12.7
5-child	25,970	100.0	22.3	1.3	12.2	28.9	5.4	1.8	15.0	13.1
NORTH CENTRAL URBAN Low-cost										
2-child 3-child	25,560 23,190	100.0	23.5 24.6	1.7	11.0	32.0	4.5	•3 •8	16.7 16.3	10.3
4-child	21,380	100.0	25.6	1.7	11.2	29.1	4.8	1.0	15.7	10.8
5-child Moderate-cost	20,320	100.0	26.1	1.7	11.4	28.8	5.0	1.0	14.8	11.1
2-child	35,150	100.0	21.0	1.1	10.6	32.7	4.7	1.5	16.7	11.8
3-child 4-child	31,770	100.0	21.9 22.7	1.1	10.8	31.5 30.6	4.8 5.0	1.6 1.7	16.1 15.5	12.0 12.4
5-child	27,860	100.0	23.2	1.1	11.3	30.3	5.2	1.7	14.6	12.6
SOUTH FARM Low-cost										
2-child	25,510	100.0	21.3	2.2	11.9	29.5	4.7	1.1	19.1	10.2
3-child	22,720	100.0	22.8 24.3	2.1	12.0 12.1	28.6 26.7	4.9 5.0	1.2	18.3 17.7	10.1
5-child Moderate_cost	19,520	100.0	24.7	2.1	12.2	26.1	5.1	1.4	17.2	11.1
2-child	37,600	100.0	18.4	1.5	10.8	31.1	4.9	2.2	20.3	10.7
3-child	33,260	100.0	19.8 20.8	1.5	11.2	29.2	5.1 5.2	2.1	19.4 18.6	11.7 12.0
5-child	29,080	100.0	21.0	1.5	11.5	28.3	5.3	2.0	17.8	12.7
SOUTH URBAN Low-cost										
2-child	24,350	100.0	22.9	1.6	11.4	31.6	4.7	.7	16.2	10.9
3-child	21,710	100.0	24.5 25.9	1.6 1.6	11.4	29.7 28.5	4.9 5.0	1.0	16.0 15.1	11.0
5-child	18,750	100.0	26.3	1.6	11.8	28.0	5.1	1.3	14.5	11.4
Moderate-cost 2-child	37,990	100.0	19.6	1.2	10.6	32.5	4.9	2.3	16.3	12.7
3-child	34,170 31,390	100.0	20.7 21.6	1.2	10.7	31.4	5.0 5.2	2.2 2.1	15.8 15.1	12.9
5-child	29,980	100.0	21.8	1.3	11.1	30.4	5.2	2.1	14.4	13.6
	- ,									0.0

Source: Derived from the 1960-61 Consumer Expenditure Survey.

Effect of Family Size

The 18-year costs per child decrease as family size increases. Costs in 5-child families average 20 to 24 percent below costs in 2-child families. Cost differences between 2- and 3-child families and 3- and 4-child families are about the same, ranging between 7 and 12 percent. Between the 4- and 5-child family costs decrease only 4 or 5 percent.

Food costs decrease less than other costs when family size increases. Requirements increase in almost direct ratio to the number of children, although there are some savings in buying and cooking for a large family. Costs per child are 12 to 13 percent less in a 5-child family than in a 2-child family.

Housing and transportation costs show the greatest decreases when family size increases. Much space is used in common and many trips of the automobile serve more than one child. In these categories costs per child in a 5-child family may be as much as a third less than in a 2-child family.

--Jean L. Pennock

CHARACTERISTICS OF AMERICAN YOUTH

Population. --The number of persons in the United States who were 14 to 24 years old increased from 27 million to 39 million--or from 15 to 19 percent of the population-between 1960 and 1969, according to the Bureau of the Census. — Median age of the population has declined from 29.5 years in 1960 to 27.7 years in 1969. Those of college age (18 to 21 years old) numbered 14 million in 1969, an increase of 50 percent from 1960.

Educational attainment.—Among young adults (25 to 29 years old) in 1969, 75 percent had at least a high school education, including 16 percent who had completed 4 years of college or more. The proportion of high school graduates 20 to 24 years old who have completed at least 1 year of college increased more among males—from 42 percent in 1960 to 52 percent in 1969—than among females—33 percent in 1960 and 40 percent in 1969.

School enrollment. -- The number of persons 14 to 24 years old enrolled in school or college in October 1968 was over 20 million or 58 percent of the age group. Of those not in school, nearly 7 out of 10 were at least high school graduates. College enrollment in 1968 numbered almost 7 million, an increase of 46 percent over 1964 enrollment. Negroes of college age were less likely to be enrolled in college than whites of college age --19 and 36 percent, respectively.

Migration. -- The Census report shows that 44 percent of young adults (20 to 24 years of age) moved between March 1968 and March 1969. This does not include students temporarily living away from home at college unless their families moved; neither does it include Armed Forces personnel living on post without families.

^{1/} U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Characteristics of American Youth. Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 30 (Feb. 1970). For sale for 35 cents by Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402.

VARIATIONS IN INCOME OVER THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE 1/

The income of the family tends to rise as the head approaches middle age and fall as he becomes elderly. Median income before taxes in 1969 was \$6,700 for families headed by a person under 25 years old, about 42 percent higher for families with heads 25 to 34 years, and up another 16 percent for those aged 35 to 44 (see table). A further slight rise brought the median to a peak of \$11,600 for families with heads 45 to 54 years old. After declining by 17 and 50 percent, respectively, for the two oldest groups of families (55 to 64 and 65 and over), median income reached a low of \$4,800 at the 65-and-over age level.

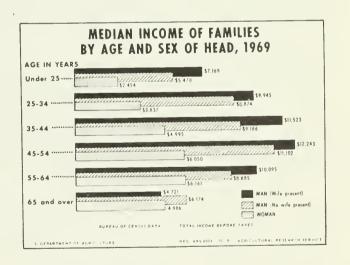
Median	income 1/	of	families	of	specified	types,	by	age	of	head,	1969
--------	-----------	----	----------	----	-----------	--------	----	-----	----	-------	------

Type of family	Number of families	All ages	Under 25 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
	Mil.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.	Dol.
All families Husband-wife families Wife not in labor	51.2 44.4	9,400	6,700 7,200	9,500 9,900	11,000 11,500	11,600 12,200	9,600 10,100	4,800 4,700
force Wife in labor force	27.0 17.5	8,900 11,600	6,400 8,100	9,300 11,000	10,800 12,500	11,100 13,500	9,000 12,100	4,300 7,400
Other families headed by a man	1.2	8,300	5,500	8,900	9,200	11,100	8,700	6,200
Families headed by a woman	5.6	4,800	2,500	3,600	5,000	6,000	6,200	5,000

Detail may not add to total because of rounding.

About 87 percent of all U.S. families and a majority of each age group are <u>husband-wife families</u>, so these families set this pattern of income change. However, their median incomes were higher than those of other types of families in the same age groups, except at age 65 and over. The peak for husband-wife families was \$12,200.

Families headed by men without wives present had median incomes 9 to 24 percent lower than husband-wife families in the same age group. except for the oldest group which had a higher income (see fig.).



^{1/} Data from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports (available for the prices given from the Supt. Doc., U.S. Govt. Print. Off., Washington, D.C. 20402): (1) <u>Income in 1969 of Families and Persons in the United States.</u> Series P-60, No. 75 (1970). \$1.25; (2) <u>Household and Family Characteristics, March 1969.</u> Series P-20, No. 200 (1970). \$1.00; and (3) <u>Average Family Income Up 9 Percent in 1969.</u> Series P-60, No. 70 (July 1970). 10 cents.

^{1/} Total money income before taxes. All figures rounded to nearest \$100.

Families headed by women had still lower median incomes. In the three youngest groups they had only 35, 36, and 43 percent, respectively, as much as husband-wife families. Those older had more members 18 years of age and older and fared somewhat better. When women family heads were 55 to 64 years old, median income peaked at \$6,200 and was almost two-thirds as high as the median of corresponding husband-wife families. At the oldest age level, median income was about the same for families headed by women as for husband-wife families.

Family Income and Employment of the Wife

Median income of husband-wife families was substantially higher when wives were in the labor force than when they were not. This was especially true for older families. The median in 1969 was 16 percent higher for employed- than nonemployed wife families when the husbands were 35 to 44 years old and 72 percent higher when the husbands were age 65 or over.

The wives' earnings are not the sole explanation of the differences in income of families with and without wives in the labor force. Incomes of the heads of families in the two groups may have differed, too.

SOCIAL SECURITY INCOME OF OLDER WOMEN

In 1969, 38 percent of all women aged 60 to 64, and 89 percent of women 65 and over received a monthly income from Old Age, Survivors, Disability, and Health Insurance (OASDHI). The total number of these beneficiaries was 11.7 million (table).

Who Receives Benefits?

There are seven classes of women beneficiaries:

Two classes, retired workers and disabled workers, are entitled to benefits on the basis of their own earnings in covered employment. The retired worker may begin receiving benefits at age 62 but will receive higher benefits if she waits to age 65. There is no age limit for the disabled worker.

Two classes, wives of retired workers and widows of deceased workers, are entitled to their benefits on the basis of their husbands' earnings. Age limits for wives of retired workers are the same as for retired workers. Widows are eligible for reduced benefits at age 60 or full benefits at age 62 unless they have children in their care, in which case there is no age requirement.

Women who can qualify both as retired workers and wives of retired workers or widows of deceased workers receive the higher of the two benefits.

Two classes are entitled through the employment of others: dependent mothers and disabled children of deceased workers. The mother must be 62 years old. There is no age limit for the disabled child.

Women in the population aged 60 and over and women aged 60 and over receiving OASDHI income, by age and type of beneficiary, December 1969

	Al	1	By age			
Women 60 and over	No. in thous.	Pet.	60-61	62-64	65 and over	
			Thous.	Thous.	Thous.	
All women 1/ All beneficiaries 2/ Retired workers Disabled workers Widows of deceased	15,590 11,655 5,363 140	100.0 46.0 1.2	1,850 216 - 54	2,564 1,444 609 86	11,175 9,995 4,754	
workers	3,066 2,538 513	26.3 21.8 4.4	145 15 -	358 388 -	2,563 2,135 513	
workers	29	.2	-	1	28	

^{1/} July 1, 1969.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Population Estimates and Projections, Series P-25, No. 441, March 19, 1970, p. 13, and unpublished data from Social Security Administration.

Special benefits are payable to women aged 72 or over who do not qualify for other benefits and do not receive public assistance. These benefits are reduced by the amount of any government pension.

In 1969, 46 percent of women aged 60 and over receiving OASDHI income were retired workers, 48 percent were widows or wives of retired workers, and 6 percent were other beneficiaries. Women who are both retired workers and widows of deceased workers or wives of retired workers are counted as retired workers. If the benefits to which they are entitled on the basis of their own earnings are not as large as the benefits to which they are entitled through their husbands, they draw the benefits they earned plus the difference.

Amount of Benefits

In December 1969 monthly benefits to the principal types of women beneficiaries averaged:

Type of beneficiary	Monthly benefits
Retired workers	\$86
Widows of deceased workers	87
Wives of retired workers	52

^{2/} Includes 5,000 women with benefits as disabled children of deceased workers not shown separately.

These benefits compare to average benefits of \$111 to retired men workers.

The relative sizes of these average benefits stem from the primary insurance amount (PIA) on which they are based and the proportion of the PIA the beneficiary is entitled to. The PIA is the amount the worker would be entitled to if he claimed benefits at age 65. The benefit to the wife (65 or over) of a retired worker is 50 percent of his PIA, that of a widow (62 or over) of a deceased worker 82.5 percent.

Benefits of retired women workers and widows of deceased workers are about equal even though the retired women workers get full PIA and the widows 82.5 percent of PIA (less some reduction in both for early benefits) because women have smaller PIA's than men. The percentage distribution of women and men by size of PIA in December 1968 was:

Primary insurance amount	Women	Men
	Pct.	Pct.
\$55 (minimum in 1968)	28.9	10.5
\$56 to \$79	19.4	11.9
\$80 to \$99	20.1	14.7
\$100 to \$119	14.4	15.0
\$120 to \$139	9.0	18.4
\$140 and over	8.1	29.5
A11	100.0	100.0

Women's PIA's tend to be smaller than men's because:

- . Women average fewer years of employment than men.
- . Women earn less than men, on the average.
- Fewer women than men work up to the time they claim benefits. More women, therefore, lose the advantage of recent high levels of pay and increases in the level of covered earnings.

The average PIA of women would be even smaller than it is if the formula for computing PIA did not favor the low-income worker.

Sources: Polinsky, Ella J., "The Position of Women in the Social Security System," Social Security Bulletin, July 1969, pp. 3-19; Shulman, Harry, "Beneficiaries with Minimum Benefits: Their Characteristics in 1967," Social Security Bulletin, October 1969, pp. 3-20; and Bretz, Judith S., "Beneficiaries with Minimum Benefits: Work-History of Retired Workers Newly Entitled in 1966." Social Security Bulletin, December 1969, pp. 36-47.

WIVES IN THE LABOR FORCE

The percentage of wives (husband present) in the labor force increased from 38.3 percent in March 1968 to 39.6 percent in March 1969, continuing the long-time upward trend. These percentages compare with a labor force rate for married women of 30.5 percent in 1960.

Young wives and wives with young children-largely the same groups-entered the labor force between 1960 and 1969 at a faster rate than other wives. As the following figures show, over the decade the percentage of wives under 35 years of age and of wives with children under 6 rose 43 and 53 percent respectively, while the percentage of all wives in the labor force rose only 33 percent.

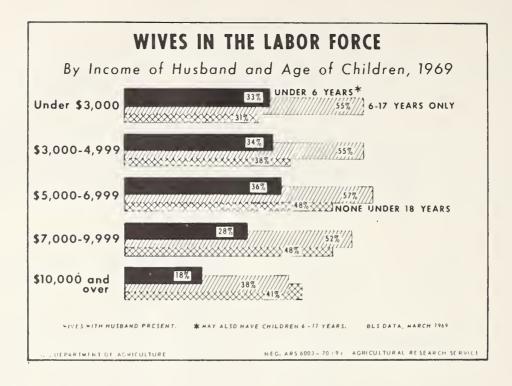
	Labor fo 1969 Pct.	rce rate 1960 Pct.	Percent increase
All wives	40	30	33
Youngest child under 6	29	19	53
Youngest child 6 - 17	49	39	26
No children under 18	41	35	17
Wives under 35 years	40	28	43
Wives 35 and over	39	32	22

Despite the increase in working wives with preschool children, they still had the lowest rate in the labor force, while wives whose youngest child was 6 - 17 years continued to have the highest. Wives with no children under 18 had a lower rate than those with children in school--reflecting the large number of wives in this group who were retired, or who had less need to work because their children were grown. Young wives without children were very likely to be working, but their labor force participation decreased with age as follows:

Age of wife	Labor force rate
	Pct.
16 - 24	67
25 - 34	66
35 - 44	58
45 - 54	50
55 and over	24

The economic pressure of raising children evidently influences many wives to work. Over one-half of wives with school age children whose husbands made less than \$10,000, and one-third of wives with preschool children whose husbands made less than \$7,000 were in the labor force in 1969 (see chart). At higher levels of income the labor force participation of wives dropped sharply, particularly for wives with preschool children. The reduced need to work probably encouraged them to stay at home with their children.

DECEMBER 1970 23



Wives with no children under 18 increased their labor force participation as their husbands' income increased—up to the \$10,000—and—over class. This probably occurred because wives had higher levels of education when their husbands earned more money. At higher levels of income the labor force participation of the wife declined slightly.

Source: Waldman, Elizabeth, "Marital and Family Characteristics of the U.S. Labor Force," Monthly Labor Review. May 1970.

COST OF FOOD AT HOME

Cost of food at home estimated for food plans at three cost levels, September 1970, U.S. average 1/

Cost for 1 week				Cos	Cost for 1 month			
Sex-age groups 2/	Low-cost plan	Moderate- cost plan		Low-cost plan	Moderate- cost plan			
	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars	Dollars		
FAMILIES								
Family of 2:	10 50	02 50	00 00	90.00	100 10	705.00		
20 to 35 years 3/	18.50 15.10	23.50 19.60	28.80 23.50	80.00	102.10 85.10	125.00		
55 to 75 years 3/ Family of 4:	17.10	19.00	23.70	09.00	0).10	102.10		
Preschool children 4/	26.80	34.20	41.50	116.00	148.00	179.70		
School children 5/	31.10	39.80	48.80	134.60	172.60	211.20		
					·			
individuals 6/								
Children, under 1 year	3.60	4.50	5.00	15.50	19.60	21.80		
1 to 3 years	4.60	5.80	6.90	19.80	24.90	29.80		
3 to 6 years	5.40	7.00	8.40	23.50	30.30	36.30		
6 to 9 years	6.60	8.50	10.60	28.60	36.80	45.80		
Girls, 9 to 12 years	7.50	9.70	11.30	32.50	42.10	49.20		
12 to 15 years	8.30	10.80	13.00	35.80	46.70	56.30		
15 to 20 years	8.50	10.70	12.70	36.70	46.40	55.00		
Boys, 9 to 12 years	7.70	9.90	12.00	33.30	43.00	51.80		
12 to 15 years	9.00 10.40	11.90 13.20	14.10	39.00	51.40	61.10		
15 to 20 years Women, 20 to 35 years -	7.80	9.90	15.90 11.90	45.00 33.70	57.30 43.10	51.70		
35 to 55 years	7.50	9.60	11.50	32.40	41.50	49.70		
55 to 75 years	6.30	8.20	9.80	27.40	35.60	42.40		
75 years and over	5.80	7.30	8.90	24.90	31.70	38.70		
Pregnant	9.20	11.60	13.70	40.00	50.20	59.20		
Nursing	10.70	13.30	15.60	46.50	57.80	67.60		
Men, 20 to 35 years	9.00	11.50	14.30	39.00	49.70	61.90		
35 to 55 years	8.40	10.70	13.00	36.20	46.20	56.30		
55 to 75 years	7.40	9.60	11.60	32.20	41.80	50.40		
75 years and over	6.90	9.30	11.20	30.10	40.30	48.50		
				1				

2 Persons of the first age listed up to but not including the second age.

3/ 10 percent added for family size adjustment.

4/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; children 1 to 3 and 3 to 6 years.

5/ Man and woman, 20 to 35 years; child 6 to 9; and boy 9 to 12 years.

^{6/} Costs given for persons in families of 4. For other size families, adjust thus: 1-person, add 20 percent; 2-person, add 10 percent; 3-person, add 5 percent; 5-person, subtract 5 percent; 6-or-more-person, subtract 10 percent.

CONSUMER PRICES Consumer Price Index for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers (1957-59 = 100)

	•			
Group	0ct. 1970	Sept. 1970	Aug. 1970	0ct. 1969
Food	137.4 133.0 127.8 158.0 138.5 149.1 125.2 158.6 119.0 125.5 118.0 123.9 134.8 136.0 131.1 149.4 133.5 129.2 173.5 146.3 167.9 138.4 139.5	136.6 133.3 128.2 157.4 137.8 148.4 124.6 157.8 118.2 124.3 116.8 123.6 133.6 134.8 129.4 148.6 131.0 126.6 173.3 145.7 167.6 131.7 137.7 138.8	136.0 133.5 128.6 156.8 137.0 147.2 124.2 156.2 117.7 122.9 116.4 123.2 131.5 133.2 125.6 147.9 130.6 126.4 171.0 145.1 166.8 131.3 137.1 138.1	129.8 127.2 122.9 148.1 129.2 137.0 120.1 143.6 113.5 118.4 112.2 119.3 129.8 131.0 126.2 143.3 125.7 122.8 150.3 138.6 156.9 127.3 132.0 132.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Index of Prices Paid by Farmers for Family Living Items (1967 = 100) 1/

	\ / /						
Item	Nov. 1970	0ct. 1970	Sept. 1970	Aug. 1970	July 1970	June 1970	Nov. 1969
All items	115	11 5	115	114	114	114	111
Food and tobacco	-	-	114	-	-	114	-
Clothing	-	-	121	-	-	118	-
Household operation	_	-	111	-	-	109	-
Household furnishings	-	-	111	-	-	110	-
Building materials, house	-	-	115	-	-	115	-

^{1/} Note that the base has been changed from 1957-59 to 1967. Data for June 1970 on the old base are: All items, 128; food and tobacco, 131; clothing, 145; household operation, 124; household furnishings, 108; building materials, house, 122.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Statistical Reporting Service.

INDEX OF ARTICLES IN 1970 ISSUES

	Page	Issue
REGULAR FEATURES		
Consumer Prices	27	March
Consumer Prices	20	June
Consumer Prices	19	September
Consumer Prices	26	December
Cost of Food at Home	20	March
Cost of Food at Home	13	June
Cost of Food at Home	18	September
Cost of Food at Home	25	December
Some New USDA Publications	23	March
Some New USDA Publications	19	June
Some New USDA Publications	20	September
Some New USDA Publications	5	December
Index of Articles in 1969 Issues	23	March
Index of Articles in 1970 Issues	27	December
CLOTHING AND TEXTILES		
Clothing and Textiles: Supplies, Prices, and		
Outlook for 1970Virginia Britton	7	March
FAMILY FINANCE		
Child Rearing Costs at Two Levels of Living, by		
Family SizeJean L. Pennock	16	December
Consumer Awareness of Credit Costs	17	June
Cost of Raising a Child-Jean L. Pennock	13	March
Expenditures and Value of Consumption as Measures		
of Level of LivingJean L. Pennock and		
Lucile F. Mork	3	June
Expenditures and Value of Consumption of Farm and		
Rural Nonfarm Families in North Carolina		
Lucile F. Mork and Jean L. Pennock	5	September
Family Use of CreditKatherine D. Smythe	17	March
Figuring the Cost of Doing Laundry at Home		
Lucile F. Mork	6	December
Income of People Aged 65 and Older	16	September
Medical Care Expenditures	13	September
Social Security Income of Older Women	20	December
Sources of Expenditure DataJean L. Pennock	3	December
Spring 1969 Cost Estimates for BLS Budgets	15	June
Use of Bank Credit Cards Grows	17	September
Variations in Income Over the Family Life Cycle	19	December
FOOD		
A Family Food Buying GuideRuth S. Vettel	14	June
Better Diets Possible by Shifting Food Expenditure		
PatternConstance Ward	13	December

DECEMBER 1970 27

Breakfast Patterns of Boys in North Central RegionEleanor Pao		Page	Issue
RegionEleanor Pao	FOOD (Continued)		
Cost of a Family's Groceries and the USDA Food PlansBetty Peterkin			
PlansBetty Peterkin	RegionEleanor Pao	10	December
Distribution of the Food Dollar by Families in Four Regions and in the Low-Cost Food PlanJudy Chassy Food Canning by U.S. HouseholdsRuth Redstrom Food Prices Before and After Distribution of Welfare ChecksEileen F. Taylor	Cost of a Family's Groceries and the USDA Food		
Regions and in the Low-Cost Food PlanJudy Chassy Food Canning by U.S. HouseholdsRuth Redstrom 15 September Food Prices Before and After Distribution of Welfare ChecksEileen F. Taylor 12 December Ready-to-Eat Breakfast Cereals in U.S. Diets Betty Peterkin 8 December The Cost of Meats and Meat AlternativesBetty Peterkin 11 September The Outlook for Food in 1970Robert M. Walsh 11 March	PlansBetty Peterkin	11	June
Food Canning by U.S. HouseholdsRuth Redstrom 15 September Food Prices Before and After Distribution of Welfare ChecksEileen F. Taylor 12 December Ready-to-Eat Breakfast Cereals in U.S. Diets Betty Peterkin 8 December The Cost of Meats and Meat AlternativesBetty Peterkin 11 September The Outlook for Food in 1970Robert M. Walsh 11 March	Distribution of the Food Dollar by Families in Four		
Food Prices Before and After Distribution of Welfare ChecksEileen F. Taylor	Regions and in the Low-Cost Food PlanJudy Chassy	13	December
ChecksEileen F. Taylor	Food Canning by U.S. HouseholdsRuth Redstrom	15	September
Ready-to-Eat Breakfast Cereals in U.S. Diets Betty Peterkin	Food Prices Before and After Distribution of Welfare		
Betty Peterkin	ChecksEileen F. Taylor	12	December
The Cost of Meats and Meat AlternativesBetty Peterkin 11 September The Outlook for Food in 1970Robert M. Walsh 11 March	Ready-to-Eat Breakfast Cereals in U.S. Diets		
The Cost of Meats and Meat AlternativesBetty Peterkin 11 September The Outlook for Food in 1970Robert M. Walsh 11 March	Betty Peterkin	8	December
The Outlook for Food in 1970Robert M. Walsh 11 March		11	September
MISCELLANEOUS	The Outlook for Food in 1970Robert M. Walsh	11	March
	MISCELLANEOUS		
A Look Ahead in Consumer AffairsVirginia H. Knauer 3 March	A Look Ahead in Consumer AffairsVirginia H. Knauer	3	March
Characteristics of American Youth 18 December	Characteristics of American Youth	18	December
Dr. Faith Clark Retires 15 June	Dr. Faith Clark Retires	15	June
Dr. Robert L. Rizek Becomes Director of CFE 8 December	Dr. Robert L. Rizek Becomes Director of CFE	8	December
Educational Attainment of the U.S. Population 18 June	Educational Attainment of the U.S. Population	18	June
Family Economics Review Evaluation Questionnaire 25 March	Family Economics Review Evaluation Questionnaire	25	March
Family Economics Review Evaluation Survey	Family Economics Review Evaluation Survey		
Emma G. Holmes 3 September	Emma G. Holmes	3	September
Mailing of Unordered Merchandise is Banned 11 December	Mailing of Unordered Merchandise is Banned	11	December
Marital Status of Men and Women 19 June	Marital Status of Men and Women	19	June
National Economic Situation and OutlookRex F. Daly - 5 March	National Economic Situation and OutlookRex F. Daly -	5	March
New Regulations of Interest to Consumers 17 June	New Regulations of Interest to Consumers	17	June
Poverty in the United States, 1959-69 9 September	Poverty in the United States, 1959-69	9	September
Time Used by Husbands for Household Work			•
Kathryn E. Walker 8 June		8	June
Wives in the Labor Force 23 December		23	December